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Impact of conservation tillage on nitrogen and phosphorus runoff losses in a potato crop system in Fuquene watershed, Colombia.

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1 **Impact of conservation tillage on nitrogen and phosphorus runoff losses in a potato crop**
2 **system in Fuquene watershed, Colombia.**

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14
15 **ABSTRACT**

16 Intensive tillage (IT) in potato crops is considered as one of the main non-point sources (NPS) of local
17 water eutrophication in the Fuquene Lake of Colombia. Therefore, the local government has invested
18 in several programs aiming at the adoption of principles of conservation tillage (CT) which would allow
19 for developing and applying the agricultural best management practices (BMPs). The complexity of
20 hydrological and geological heterogeneity makes the degree of benefit that CT has in different locations
21 uncertain. In this study, the Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) was used to assess the impacts
22 of changing IT for CT on nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) losses in surface water runoff from the potato
23 crop in the Fuquene watershed. This is done at field and watershed levels. A two-year study quantified
24 the changes in surface water runoff pollutants for three potato crop cycles under the traditional IT
25 practice and CT practice - which included reducing tillage, green manure, and permanent soil cover - at
26 twelve runoff plots installed in the Fuquene watershed (Quintero and Comerford, 2013). This
27 information was used to build, calibrate and validate the SWAT model. The results suggest that CT for
28 the Fuquene watershed can be reduced up to 26% of the sediment yield and 11% of the surface runoff

29 compared with IT, which means an overall reduction of load. The main CT effect on nutrient losses in
30 runoff is an increase in the total N and P (2% to 18% respectively) compared to IT. However, the results
31 at watershed level showed different patterns from those obtained at field level. Despite the model
32 uncertainties, the results show a possibility of using hydrological models to assess the effectiveness of
33 various field management practices in agriculture.

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Keywords:

36 Hydrological model; best management practice; conservation tillage; water quality; Andes; SWAT
37 model.

38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 The decline in the water quality in the Fuquene watershed (Colombia) is a serious environmental
41 problem, especially in Lake Fuquene, where an accelerated eutrophication process has been observed
42 (Japan International Cooperation Agency—JICA, 2000). Nitrogen and phosphorus runoffs from potato
43 crop fertilizer operations are estimated to be causing the increase of nutrients in the lake, which has in
44 turn has increased the presence of algae bloom (Rubiano et al., 2006b). As a result, the biodiversity in
45 the lake is threatened, as well that the drinking water for the local communities due to the leakage of
46 toxic chemical in the treating process (Hanifzadeh et al., 2017), and also water for agriculture, fisheries
47 and, particularly, for livestock (Quintero and Otero, 2006; Rubiano et al., 2006b). Therefore, the
48 environmental authorities are aiming to address this problem due to the importance of this water source
49 for the communities, agriculture and livestock (Rubiano et al., 2006a).

50 Intensive tillage (IT) is the conventional management practice used by potato farmers in the
51 Fuquene watershed. This practice is characterized by a lack of plant coverage and low levels of crop

52 residue in the potato cycle. Because of this, the soil is vulnerable to erosion processes and nutrient losses
53 in the runoff (Zhang et al., 2014; Carter et al., 2009). Therefore, research nowadays focuses on
54 agricultural BMPs which endeavor to use nutrients efficiently, conserve the soil structure and reduce
55 runoff (Quintero and Comerford, 2013; Logan, 1993). In this context, agricultural BMPs that focus on
56 non-tillage and reduced tillage are increasingly being adopted by farmers because they have the
57 potential to reduce water pollution and to develop environmentally friendly agricultural systems, which
58 at the same time will offer better income to local farmers (Liu et al., 2013; Sedano et al., 2013;
59 Panagopoulos et al., 2011; Soane, 1990). Studies indicated that the BMPs in growing potato crops could
60 reduce the loss of nutrients in surface without any negative effect on the potato yield and quality,
61 although there may be some influence on the potato maturation and harvest date (Carter and Sanderson,
62 2001). A study done in 14 potato field trials at various locations across Idaho, Oregon over a time period
63 of four years, demonstrated that potato farmers following BMPs received a similar yield with less
64 financial investment than when following a maximum yield approach (Hopkins et al., 2007). Also,
65 Zebarth and Rosen (2007) clarified that even when BMPs are developed to optimize tuber yield and
66 reduce losses of nutrients, it is necessary to select the appropriate rate and timing for applying nitrogen-
67 based fertilizers. In this way, it is possible to control potato growth according to the soil properties,
68 water management, climatic conditions and terrain slope.

69 In Colombia, the regional environmental authority (Corporacion Autonoma Regional – CAR) in the
70 Fuquene watershed has been investing in adopting conservation tillage (CT) since 1999 for the potato
71 crop system. In this paper, CT is defined as any practice of soil cultivation that reduces runoff and
72 increases infiltration by leaving the previous crop residues on the field (Derpsch, 2003). This also,
73 increases the soil organic matter near the soil surface, improving the soil structure and biological
74 properties in the potato crop (Carter et al., 2009). Experience has shown that CT provides potential

75 benefits for organic matter increase, soil hydraulic properties, and that soil protection may be increased
76 by the impact of rainfall (Carter and Sanderson, 2001). Nevertheless, the management effects of some
77 biological properties are not measurable in the short term (i.e., less than 5 years) (Carter, 1992).

78 The International Center for Tropical Agriculture (CIAT) has been researching the impact on
79 nutrient and soil losses in this crop since 2010 due to the implementation of CT practices in Fuquene
80 watershed. Experimental runoff plots were installed, and the IT and CT practices applied. The specific
81 CT practices adopted in the pilot project included reduced tillage, green manure, and a permanent soil
82 cover crop prior to potato sowing. Sediment yield and loss of nitrogen (N) as NH_4^+ and NO_3^- , as well
83 as phosphorus (P) as PO_4^{3-} in runoff were measured. The results helped to understand the effect of CT
84 at field level. For example, Quintero and Comerford (2013) investigated the effect of CT in the potato
85 crop system in the Fuquene watershed in order to assess the contribution of CT in potato-based rotations
86 with respect to the aggregated soil organic carbon in the disturbed organic matter. The results indicated
87 that reduced tillage in potato-based crop rotations increased the soil carbon concentration and average
88 C content in the whole profile by 50 and 33% respectively, as compared to conventional farming
89 practices. Thus, CT helps to bring these soils back to their original characteristics (high organic matter
90 soils) (Quintero and Comerford, 2013).

91 Several studies report the effects of CT on pollutant losses by applying hydrological modeling tools.
92 Many of these studies describe the accuracy of pollutant prediction obtained for each case study.
93 However, the results are found to vary significantly and provide important insights only for particular
94 agricultural watersheds (Park et al., 2014; Amon-Armah et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013; Bosch et al., 2013;
95 Betrie et al., 2011; Lam et al., 2011). Despite the increased use of modeling tools to assess the impact
96 of CT as an agricultural BMP on the pollutant losses, there are still knowledge gaps in this topic. One
97 of the most common issues identified to date is how to evaluate the effectiveness of BMPs at controlling

98 nonpoint source pollution in order to obtain the necessary information that would help decision-makers
99 to develop environmental regulations and manage the agricultural sector. Therefore, the objective of
100 this research is to assess the impact of CT on sediments, nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) losses in
101 runoff for potatoes at field and watershed levels by applying the Soil Water Assessment Tool (SWAT).
102 This paper will contribute by answering the questions: How do the management practices in a potato-
103 based mixed crop system influencing the runoff and soil nutrients (N and P) losses at the field and
104 watershed levels? And, what would be the effect of applying CT extrapolation in current potato systems
105 throughout all the watershed?.

106

107 **2. Material and methods**

108 Parameters related to the crop database, soil and agricultural management practices were set in the
109 SWAT model according to the local crop systems. A calibration process was carried out by combining
110 the data regarding the impact of management practices on soil and nutrient losses and runoff (measured
111 in the field), and streamflow data from gauging stations. Usually, the calibration of the hydrological
112 model calibration process is considered a challenge to be carry out in the Colombia watersheds, where
113 the complexity of shifting cultivation, intensive traditional agriculture, diverse crops and management
114 practices in a landscape, and weather seasonality are predominant. Also, CT management practices for
115 the potato crop were extrapolated to be able to assess the whole basin. Additionally, the IT and CT
116 effectiveness at field and watershed level were assessed in order to provide guidelines for the decision-
117 makers and stakeholders who aim to use these agricultural management practices for the potato crop.

118

119

120 *2.1 Fuquene watershed case study*

121 This study was conducted on the Fuquene Lake watershed, located in the northern part of Bogota
122 city (Colombia) (5°28'00"N, 73°45'00"W). The watershed has an area of approximately 784 km². The
123 study area is characterized by large, rocky outcrops and mixed topography (flat areas, semi-flat and
124 streams) which varies between 2,520 and 3,786 meters above sea level (m.a.s.l). The annual mean
125 precipitation is 777.9 mm, and the annual temperatures are between 12 °C and 18 °C, without great
126 variation throughout the year. The relative humidity ranges between 70% and 80% (IDEAM, 2004).
127 The water from the lake is used and distributed by the municipal water supply companies for human
128 consumption, in settlements located downstream of the lake. The water is supplied to more than 500,000
129 inhabitants of the region (IGAC, 2000). Fig. 1 presents the study area.

130 The development of agricultural activities in this watershed has become the main economic driver
131 for its inhabitants. Due to the climate and soils, of this watershed, monocultures are predominant. The
132 potato crop is considered as the most important crop in the watershed. It is worth mentioning that the
133 potato crop has been included in the Food and Nutrition National Plan (PAN) as one of the main crops
134 for the daily diet of millions of consumers, especially in low-income sectors (CAR, 2006). The potato-
135 cultivated area in the Fuquene watershed is around 16,933 ha, with an annual production of 280,000
136 tons. Although the research uses the Fuquene Basin in Colombia as the main case study, the goal is to
137 develop general methodologies that are applicable to similar watersheds.

138

139 *2.2 Hydrological and water quality model*

140 The watershed model used in this study was the Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT)
141 developed by the United States Department of Agriculture – Agricultural Research Service (USDA-
142 ARS) (Arnold et al., 1998). The model is a continuous-time, semi-distributed, process-based river

143 watershed-scale model, designed to simulate the long-term effects of water management decisions on
144 the water quality and hydrology response (Neitsch et al., 2011). The model is built on a daily time step
145 at sub-basin and watershed scales. The use of sub-basins in a simulation is particularly helpful when
146 different areas of the watersheds are dominated by land uses or soils which are differ in their properties
147 that may impact the hydrology. These are further subdivided into a series of Hydrological Response
148 Units (HRU), which are common land areas within the sub-basin that are composed of unique land
149 cover, soil and agricultural management practices (Arnold et al., 2012b). The hydrological cycle
150 simulated is based on the water balance equation, which includes daily precipitation, runoff,
151 evapotranspiration, percolation, and returns flow components (Gassman et al., 2007). Spatial
152 information such as the soil type and characteristics, land use, climate, and topography are necessary
153 inputs.

154 The input data required for this study were compiled from different sources. These include the
155 Agustin Codazzi Geographic Institute (IGAC), the Institute of Hydrology, Meteorology and
156 Environmental Studies (IDEAM), the Regional Environmental Authority of Cundinamarca (CAR), and
157 the public service companies. The resolution, scale, and sources are shown in Table 1.

158 The weather input data from 46 stations located in the basin were obtained from public and private
159 institutions and provided by CAR (Fig. 1). The historic recorded daily data included: relative humidity,
160 precipitation, temperature (maximum, minimum and average), solar radiation, and wind speed. Monthly
161 flow measurements at the Boyera, El Pino, Puente Balsa and Puente Colorado stations were used to
162 represent the flow in different locations of the watershed. The Puente Colorado station is located near
163 the end of the basin and represents the outlet for the entire watershed just before the main river reaches
164 the lake (Fig. 1). The Puente Balsa station has three months of empty records in 2008 and one month in
165 the year 2013. Likewise, the Puente Colorado station did not record values for the years of 2006, 2008

166 and 2009. Therefore, these dates will not be used for the calculation of errors in the calibration and
167 validation processes.

168 For this study, the SWAT model was built on a daily time step for the period 2006 to 2013. The
169 watershed was delineated into 30 subbasins (Fig. 1). In the generation of HRUs, the slope classes were
170 always set out in five ranges (0–5%; 5–15%; 15–25%; 25–45%; and >45%). The potential
171 evapotranspiration (PET) was simulated using the Hargreaves method (Hargreaves and Samani, 1985)
172 and the actual evapotranspiration (AET) was calculated based on the methodology developed by Ritchie
173 (1972). In order to predict the surface runoff, The Natural Resources Conservation Service Curve
174 Number (CN) method (USDA-SCS 1972) was used. CN values were determined based on a previous
175 study, where the Colombian Land Cover map categories were associated with SWAT land cover codes
176 (IDEAM et al., 2008).

177

178 *2.3 Agricultural management practices*

179 Agricultural management practices are inputs to the model by modifying the management files. The
180 representation of the traditional and conservation potato agricultural management practices was
181 simulated as scenarios. IT in the current situation corresponds to the baseline scenario, and the CT
182 practice was considered to be scenario 1. Seven HRUs were selected because these correspond spatially
183 with the plots installed in the field. These are characterized by being located in the subbasin 12 with
184 mean slope 15% to 45%, and soil units MMVe3 and MMVg3 which are Inceptisol soil types classified
185 by IGAC as Typic Haplustepts (IGAC, 2000).

186 Based on previous results from the experimental runoff plots installed in 2011 by CIAT in the
187 municipality of Ubate located in the watershed, the parameter values related to management practices
188 were defined (Quintero and Comerford, 2013; Quintero, 2014) (Fig. 1). The pilot Fuquene project

189 established twelve experimental runoff plots - each with an area of 2,500 m² - for assessing two potato-
 190 based systems: conventional agriculture with intensive tillage (IT) and conservation agriculture with
 191 oat cover crop residues (green manure - GM), permanent cover and conservation tillage (CT). A total
 192 of three crop cycles were planted in September 2011, March 2012 and October 2012. The conventional
 193 agriculture with IT is traditionally a rotation between potato (*Solanum tuberosum*) and pasture (*Lolium*
 194 *perenne*) with grazing (Quintero, 2014). The IT operation is carried out by conventional plowing
 195 followed by rotovator passes to invert the soil (Fig. 2). On the other hand, the CT adopted in the pilot
 196 Fuquene project included different management practices such as reduced tillage, green manure, and
 197 permanent soil cover. The CT rotation (oats-potato-oats-potato-pasture) involved potatoes with an oat
 198 cover crop used as green manure prior to potato sowing, and pastures at the end of the rotation cycle
 199 (Quintero, 2014) (Fig. 3). The management practices parameter values obtained from the runoff plots
 200 are shown in Table 2. The physico-chemical characteristics of the soil measured in the field plots were
 201 defined in the soil database for the HRUs which correspond to the location of the runoff plots (Table
 202 3).

203

204 *2.4 Model calibration*

205 Traditional statistical indicators measuring the proximity of the predictions to the observed values
 206 were used to evaluate the performance of SWAT: Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency index (NSE) (Eq. (1)), the
 207 index of agreement *d* (Eq. (2)), the root mean square error (RMSE) (Eq. (3)), and the mean absolute
 208 error (MAE) (Eq. (4)).

$$NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - P_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - \bar{O})^2} \quad (1)$$

$$d = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - P_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (|P_i - \bar{O}| + |O_i - \bar{O}|)^2} \quad (2)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - P_i)^2} \quad (3)$$

$$MAE = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N |O_i - P_i| \quad (4)$$

209 where: O_i = measured (observed) data, P_i = modeled data, \bar{O} = mean of measured data, and N is the
 210 number of observations during the simulation period. NSE ranges between $-\infty$ and 1.0 with NSE=1
 211 being the optimal value, values between 0.0 and 1.0 being generally viewed as acceptable levels of
 212 performance, whereas values ≤ 0 indicate that the mean observed value is a better predictor than
 213 simulated values, which indicates unacceptable performance (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970). A computed d
 214 value of 1 indicates a perfect agreement between the measured and predicted values, and 0 indicates no
 215 agreement at all. RMSE and MAE values of 0 indicate a perfect fit.

216 Global sensitivity analysis was carried out with the aim of assessing the most sensitive parameters
 217 for setting up the model in this watershed. The built-in Latin hypercube one-at-a-time (LH-OAT)
 218 technique (Green and van Griensven, 2008; Morris, 1991) was used to determine the sensitive
 219 parameters for streamflow. The results obtained were used for flow calibration. Manual monthly
 220 calibration and validation were conducted using the data from the four stream gauging stations: Boyera,
 221 El Pino, Puente Balsa and Puente Colorado, compared with the outflows of subbasins 12, 7 and 2,
 222 respectively (Fig. 1). All these comparisons were based on the Nash–Sutcliffe efficiency index (NSE)
 223 (Eq. 1). The index of agreement d , the root mean square error (RMSE), and the mean absolute error
 224 (MAE), given by Equations (2) to (4), were used for each gauging station as a reference. Table 4
 225 provides an overview of the parameters modified in the model calibration and their final calibration
 226 values.

227 The second step of the calibration process was for losses of sediments and nutrients. The model was
228 calibrated manually using the monthly data from September 2011 to March 2013 for sediments, surface
229 runoff, and concentration of soluble P, and NO₃ in the runoff. The mean absolute error (MAE) was used
230 to evaluate the model performance for total accumulated sediment yield and nutrient losses, collected
231 from each runoff plot during the mentioned period. Validation was conducted at field level with the
232 results obtained in the HRUs where IT and CT practices were applied.

233

234 **3. Results and discussion**

235 *3.1 Streamflow calibration*

236 Sensitivity analysis was performed for streamflow to determine the most influential parameters on the
237 model output. Table 4 presents the eleven most sensitive parameters related to streamflow from the 20
238 evaluated. The parameters were ranked according to the P-value (significance of the sensitivity) from
239 the highest to the lowest, where the highest are the most sensitive parameters (Abbaspour et al., 2015).
240 In general, Revapmn.gw (threshold water depth in the shallow aquifer for return flow by capillary and
241 soil evaporation process), Gwqmn.gw (threshold water depth in the shallow aquifer required for return
242 flow to occur), and Sol_k.sol (saturated hydraulic conductivity into the soil) were the most sensitive.
243 The sensitivity analysis results were included in the streamflow model calibration. Table 5 presents the
244 parameters that were adjusted in order to improve the efficiency of the model in the studied watershed
245 for predicting the streamflow, which correspond mainly to runoff and groundwater flow processes.

246 The range of the simulation period was divided into two without including the first year. The first
247 year was excluded because this time is the warm modeling period. The streamflow calibration process
248 was performed for the first period (2006–2010) and the second period (2011–2013) was used for the
249 validation process.. The calibration and validation results are summarized in Table 6. According to

250 guidelines developed by Moriasi et al. (2007), the monthly streamflow calibration values at the four
251 gauging stations were considered 'good' in the calibration period (NSE values greater than 0.65 and
252 index of agreement (d) values were close to 1), with the exception of the Puente Balsa station (NSE =
253 0.5). The validation model predicted monthly flows at the four stations with NSE= 0.54, 0.32, 0.58 and
254 0.61, respectively, highlighting that values obtained at the El Pino station were considered
255 unsatisfactory in the validation period (NSE=0.32). Fig. 4 shows the hydrographs for the calibration
256 and validation results (the two periods separated by a red line) for each streamflow gauging station.

257 Overall, the monthly streamflow predictions were considered acceptable for this project. The
258 baseflow is generally well represented by the model when compared to the observations. However, the
259 peaks for certain times of the simulated period were slightly overpredicted. This is expected,
260 considering that the watershed is under intensive agriculture, and the agricultural water used in the
261 model was insufficient, since only the potato crop management was considered. Additionally, the
262 calibration and validation were affected by the lack of information available on the “El Hato” reservoir
263 (located upstream) and the dams constructed for irrigation. Similar findings have shown the
264 overprediction of peak flows (Arnold et al., 2012; Harmel et al., 2014; Daggupati et al., 2015;
265 Francesconi et al., 2016), which confirms that there is greater uncertainty in the calibration process,
266 particularly for scenarios and case studies in which the information is not available.

267

268 *3.2 Water quality calibration*

269 On the other hand, calibration of nutrient losses in the runoff and sediments was performed for the
270 available experimental period (September 2011 to March 2013) on the runoff plots related with the
271 HRUs selected. Table 5 presents the parameters that were adjusted in order to improve the efficiency
272 of the model in the studied watershed for the prediction of sediments and nutrients. In general, the

273 calibration of the water quality for the IT management practices (baseline) was done by decreasing the
274 sediment yield, increasing the content of NO_3^- , and decreasing soluble and organic P yields. Some
275 important parameters are the CN2 defined for potato, which in the model database was increased by
276 10%, and the USLE_P (ratio of soil loss with a specific support practice), which was changed from 1
277 to 0.5 in order to reduce the sediment yield. In the case of the nutrients in the soil layer, the initial
278 concentrations of NO_3^- , soluble P, organic N and P (Sol_no3, Sol_labp, Sol_orgn, and Sol_orgp) were
279 defined according to the measurement obtained in the runoff plots.

280 The measured and simulated total (accumulated) values were compared for (i) the surface runoff,
281 (ii) NO_3^- , (iii) the soluble P, and (iv) sediment losses, at field level (HRU analyzed). The calibration for
282 sediments and nutrients was considered to be acceptable (Moriasi et al., 2007). The results (Table 7)
283 showed that the highest absolute errors were calculated for surface runoff, with values of 1.5 and 2.3
284 l/m^2 for the IT and CT scenarios, respectively. However, the absolute error (Table 7) for the other
285 variables was less than zero for each measurement unit. Despite the errors reported, a similar trend was
286 observed for the IT and CT values simulated when compared with the field observations (runoff plots
287 measurements). For instance, it can be observed that the total runoff and soil losses are reduced in the
288 CT scenario, while the nitrogen and phosphorus concentrations in the runoff are higher, when compared
289 to the intensive tillage (IT). However, the calibration can be further improved when continuous records
290 of water quality parameters are available. Also, several calibration techniques have been developed for
291 a physically based model like SWAT (Smarzyńska and Miatkowski, 2016; Me et al., 2015; Akhavan et
292 al., 2010; Harmel et al., 2014; Arnold et al., 2012) and these could be suitable depending on the final
293 goal of the modeling.

294

295 *3.3 The effectiveness of CT-BMP at field level*

296 The effectiveness of CT was first evaluated at field level. The period from September 2011 to
297 February 2012 was selected for the assessment of the CT effect if compared to the baseline (IT) results
298 obtained. This period was selected because it corresponds with the potato planting phase in both
299 practices. In addition, CT spatial extrapolation was done for the whole potato crop area in order to
300 define the impact on the water quality if BMPs were applied by all farmers (Fig. 1). Table 8 shows the
301 results of the main effects of IT and CT on the average monthly runoff, sediment and nutrients in the
302 runoff at field vs. watershed level.

303 The results for the CT practice showed a reduction of the sediment yield by 46%, and the surface
304 runoff by 27% at field level (Table 8). The simulated sediment loads indicated a tendency to decrease
305 when the surface runoff decreased, and the same tendency was found for soil loss, but not as high as for
306 the sediment loads (Fig. 4). Furthermore, the soil loss reduction was almost twice the reduction of runoff
307 during the rainy season. It is noteworthy that the percentage of runoff reduction (27%) is similar to the
308 increase in infiltration obtained for CT, which varies from 429 mm H₂O to 553 mm H₂O (representing
309 a 29% increase). Therefore, when the runoff is minimum and infiltration is maximum, there is a high
310 possibility of water moving through the root zone (Stewart, 1994). Our study indicates that the soil–
311 water content increase (approximately 3%) is in accordance with previous studies carried out in the
312 same watershed (Quintero, 2009; Quintero and Comerford, 2013; Quintero, 2014). The trend of high
313 infiltration as a consequence of CT practices is reported by other studies (Deubel et al., 2011; Ram et
314 al., 2018; Villamil and Nafziger, 2015); however, it is stated that such results vary widely depending
315 on the soil type, crop system, and management.

316 Additionally, the mass balances of nitrogen and phosphorus were analyzed in order to understand
317 the differences between the effects of CT and IT practices on the nutrients losses. The mass balances

318 showed that the total losses of N and P in the runoff increased by 17% and 29%, respectively. The total
319 N and total P yields in the runoff at field level are shown in Fig. 6. The results at field level agree
320 completely with the results from the data measured in the runoff plots reported by CIAT (Quintero et
321 al., 2013; Quintero, 2014). The main reason for the total N and P increments is related to the increase
322 of the organic N within a range of 50% and the increase of soluble P of 38% (Table 8). This might be
323 attributed to the effect of the increase of the residual cover crop (oat as a green manure) in the potato–
324 pasture rotation in the CT scenario.

325 The average concentration of nitrate-N in the runoff increased by 20% (Table 8) in the CT practice.
326 Furthermore, this result was more evident in specific events. The transformation of fresh organic N to
327 mineral N suggests an increase of up to 162 kg N/ha in the CT practice, compared with 47 kg N/ha in
328 the IT practice. Mineralization of active nitrogen increases up to 248% in the CT, compared to IT. The
329 mineralization of residual nitrogen, from fresh residual plants, to nitrate is about 80%, while active
330 organic nitrogen is 20%. This means that mineralization generates a net gain in the nitrate due to
331 oxidation of the N compounds, allowing nutrients to be released (Hart et al., 1994). The results for NO₃-
332 leachate from the soil profile suggest that there is an increase of 15%. However, even though there is a
333 high NO₃-N content in the soil, the model shows that it leaches, which prevents its accumulation in the
334 soil profile. Consequently, there is a decrease by 10% of nitrogen uptake in the plants.

335 Despite the increase of the bulk density of the first soil layer (Table 3) and the decrease of the
336 amount of surface runoff, the soluble phosphorus increased in the CT scenario (Table 8). The main
337 reason for the soluble P increment may be that the amount of phosphorus in solution in the top 10 mm
338 of soil increased by 26.88 kg P/ha, compared to 8.59 kg P/ha for the IT scenario. The results suggested
339 that the increase of net P in solution can be attributed mainly to the mineralization of phosphorus from
340 the fresh residue pool and from the active organic pool to the labile pool (P in solution), which increased

341 by up to 178% in the CT, compared to IT. Deubel et al. (2011) reported an increase of soluble P by 24%
342 under conservation tillage in long-term research, along with a trend of high P concentrations in deeper
343 soil layers. In contrast, the implementation of CT can reduce by approximately 33% the organic
344 phosphorus transported with the sediments into the reach (Table 8). The transformation of phosphorus
345 between the mineral pool (P in solution) and the "active" mineral pool (P absorbed to the surface of soil
346 particles) decreased by 69.85% in the CT scenario. Additionally, the decrease of the sediments yield
347 (metric tons) for the CT scenario (Table 8) has a direct influence on the phosphorus load transported
348 with sediments to the main channel in the surface runoff (Neitsch et al., 2011). Equally important,
349 despite the increased availability of the total P and especially soluble P in this research, the uptake of P
350 removed from the soil by plants was almost the same or even tended to be less for the CT scenario
351 (38.63 and 36.86 kg P/ha for the IT and CT scenarios, respectively).

352

353 *3.4 The effectiveness of CT-BMP at the watershed level*

354 The extrapolation of the CT management practice was performed for the entire potato crop
355 cultivated in the watershed, under different biophysical conditions (HRUs) from those evaluated at the
356 field level. The results suggest that CT at the watershed level reduces the surface runoff and sediment
357 yield by 11% and 26%, respectively. The reduction obtained for the two parameters represents
358 approximately half of the reduction obtained at the field level. Furthermore, the greatest reduction in
359 CT compared with IT occurred during the rainy season, which is when farmers normally perform
360 fertilization tasks in order to take advantage of the wet soil conditions.

361 Surface runoff loss could be influenced by the tillage type and the rotation system (e.g., when
362 incorporating green manure). However, the SCS runoff curve numbers (CN2) defined per soil type,
363 land use, and management practices in the model inputs were not affected directly by the CT operation.

364 Therefore, the surface runoff increments cannot be attributed mainly to the CT scenario (Maharjan et
365 al., 2018) . This is mainly because the precipitation, slope, and soil moisture vary for the other potato
366 crop areas (HRUs) along the watershed, in addition to which the tillage practices affect the sediment
367 yields. In the model, the P_{USLE} support practice factor (USLE_P) defined in the modified universal soil
368 loss equation (William, 1995) is the only parameter related to CT practices that affects the sediment
369 yields. However, to verify the consistency of this impact it is necessary to consider that the SWAT
370 model is also directly affected by the surface runoff volume, topographic factors and soil erodibility
371 factors defined in the soil properties.

372 Total nitrogen increased by 2% in the CT scenario at watershed level (Table 8). The concentration
373 of nitrate-N was significantly higher in CT compared to IT, with an increase of 17% (Table 8). The
374 increment in NO_3^- was directly affected by the nitrification process, which oxidized the ammonia or
375 ammonium coming from the inorganic fertilizer applied (0.26 and 4.42 kg N/ha in the IT and CT
376 scenarios, respectively). Furthermore, no significant differences were shown for organic N (Table 8).
377 This form of nitrogen is associated with the sediment loading, and consequently organic N decreases
378 when the sediment loads are reduced. The amount of organic N transported to the main channel in
379 surface runoff calculated by the model can be adjusted using the nitrogen enrichment ratio (ERORGN)
380 parameter (Neitsch et al., 2011). In our study, the default value of the model was used, which is
381 calculated by a logarithmic equation related to sediment concentration developed by Menzel (1980).
382 Therefore, future studies are required to calibrate this parameter for the different types of soils in the
383 watershed, and also to be able to calibrate the sediment loads for HRUs that are different from those
384 used in the analysis at the field level.

385 In contrast, total phosphorus decreased by 18% in the CT scenario (Table 8). This effect is mainly due
386 to the 38% decrease of soluble P in the surface runoff of the CT scenario in comparison to the IT

387 scenario (Table 8). When each component of the phosphorus mass balance was analyzed, it was
388 interesting to note that the amount of phosphorus between the "labile" mineral pool (P in solution) and
389 the "active" mineral pool (P sorbed to the surface of soil particles) was -4.97 kg P/ha in the CT,
390 compared to 3.87 kg P/ha in the IT scenario. A negative value in the model denotes a net gain in soluble
391 P, due to the increase in the labile pool from the active pool (Neitsch et al., 2011). However, the amount
392 of soluble P transported in surface runoff also depends on the bulk density of the first soil layer, and the
393 phosphorus soil partitioning coefficient (PHOSKD), which is the ratio of the soluble P concentration in
394 the surface soil to the soluble P concentration in surface runoff (Neitsch et al., 2011). For instance, even
395 though the PHOSKD parameter was calibrated (Table 5) and the bulk density was measured (Table 3)
396 at field level, the spatial transfer of the CT to a different type of soil affects directly the value calculated
397 for the soluble P (Deubel et al., 2011) at the watershed level. Furthermore, the principal effect of the
398 CT on organic P was a decrease of 8% compared to the IT scenario (Table 8). Unlike the organic N, the
399 value obtained for the organic P showed a direct correlation with the sediment loading loss.
400 Nevertheless, to verify the consistency of this impact over the watershed, the phosphorus enrichment
401 ratio parameter (ERORGGP) calculated as a default by the model needs to be adjusted.

402 This study indicates that the use of an integrated watershed modeling to assess the impact of CT on
403 nutrient properties requires further spatial calibration to improve the model accuracy. Farm-scale soil
404 physical and chemical data under CT management is necessary to parameterize the inputs. For example,
405 the soil bulk density in SWAT is an input defined manually by the user, and the temporal variation of
406 the bulk density of the soil layer is not affected by the tillage operation (Arnold et al., 2012a; Maharjan
407 et al., 2018). Although the impact of CT on the soil properties has been studied widely for the
408 management of different crops over short- and long-term durations (Carter and Sanderson, 2001;
409 Deubel et al., 2011; Ram et al., 2018; Quintero and Comerford, 2013; Villamil and Nafziger, 2015;

410 Wang et al., 2015), many gaps still need to be addressed, such as the simulation approach to soil tillage,
411 and especially to the spatial and temporal changes of the soil's physical and microbial activity.
412 However, we realize that some processes are difficult to characterize accurately in large watersheds due
413 to the insufficient data or understanding of the processes themselves. Furthermore, depending on the
414 research scope, the modeling approach may or may not be a viable alternative.

415 **4. Conclusions and outlook**

416 The objective of the study was to assess the impacts of CT on the runoff quality, as well as soil,
417 nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) losses in a potato crop in the Fuquene watershed (Colombia) by
418 applying the SWAT model. The model performance was calibrated and validated at field level for site-
419 specific conditions, and then CT practices were extrapolated to the whole potato crop area in the basin.
420 Despite the modeling uncertainties, the results provide evidence that the model-based approach
421 presented is useful and effective, and it can be used as a strong basis to facilitate the development of
422 land-use plans by local decision makers to reduce water pollution in the Fuquene watershed.

423 The results suggest that CT at the watershed level reduces the sediment yield by 26% and surface
424 runoff by 11% if compared with IT, which means an overall reduction of load. The greatest reduction
425 of CT occurs, especially in the rainy season. The main CT effect on nutrient losses in the runoff is that
426 an increase occurs in the total N and P (2% to 18% respectively) compared to the baseline. In addition,
427 the CT simulation results suggest that the concentration of N- NO₃⁻ in the surface runoff could be
428 increased by 17%. This might be attributed to the nitrification process, which oxidized the ammonia or
429 ammonium coming from the inorganic fertilizer applied. However, the results at watershed level
430 showed different patterns from those obtained at field level. In fact, the major limitation identified in
431 this study arises from the process of the CT extrapolation practice for all the potato crop areas within

432 the watershed, because the calibration model was made for a very small area (field level), and the initial
433 and calibrated parameter values are the same for other soil types and average slopes.

434 This paper provides important information about the effects of potato crop agricultural management
435 practices on the runoff water quality in an Andean watershed. It thereby provides a potential model for
436 future Andean watershed studies, providing guidelines to decision-makers and stakeholders who are
437 aiming to use these agricultural management practices for the potato crop. Given the loss of nutrients
438 obtained for the CT practice, the authors suggest that it may be possible to reduce the amounts applied,
439 considering the contribution of the green manure nutrients involved. Adjusting to the amounts of
440 fertilizer could help increase the competitiveness of conservation agriculture in potato crops, compared
441 to conventional management practices. However, it is necessary to assess reduced dose trials and their
442 impacts on productivity, erosion, and runoff. In addition, more detailed spatio-temporal models and the
443 application of optimization techniques would be a very useful approach to identify and allocate CT-
444 BMP options with the aim of reducing the reliance of agricultural practices on water pollution.
445 Moreover, using this type of models and techniques, it could be possible to include several crops in the
446 same watershed, consider climate change scenarios, and define suitable parameters for the different
447 areas in the watershed. Overall, future research that contemplates these points will help mitigate the
448 uncertainty in assessing the implementation of BMPs at the watershed level.

449

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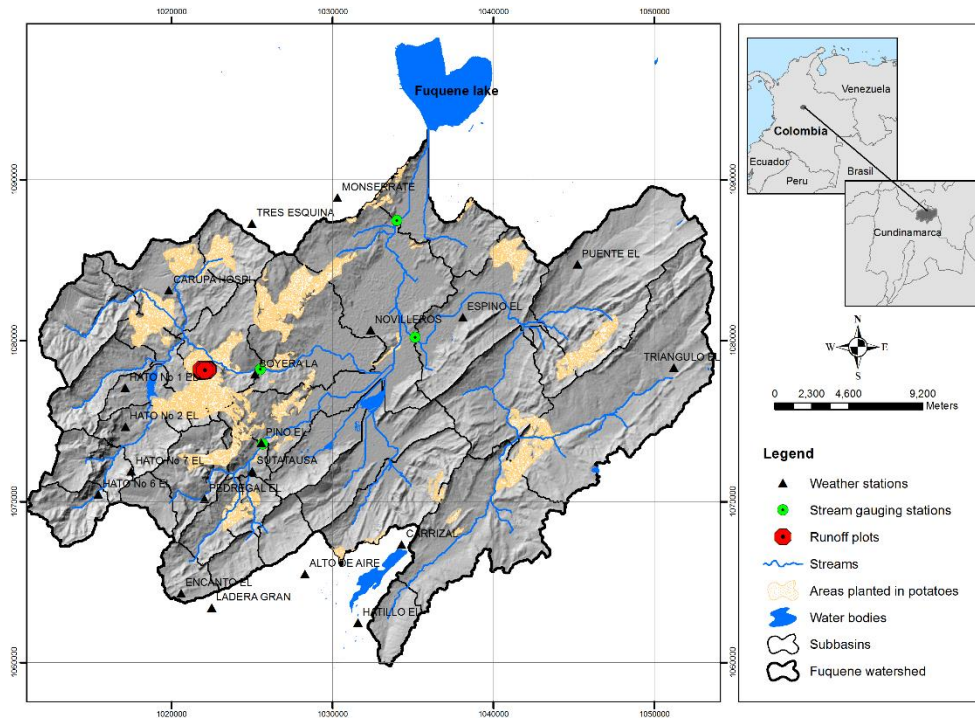
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Fig. 1. Location of the Fuquene watershed in Colombia, the location of stream gauging and weather stations in the watershed, runoff plots location, and subbasin delineation defined in SWAT modeling.

Table 1
Spatial input data

Data type	Resolution	Source
Topographic map	30m	CAR
Land use map	1:25.000	IGAC
Soil map	1:100.000	IGAC
Weather	No. of stations: 21	CAR-IDEAM

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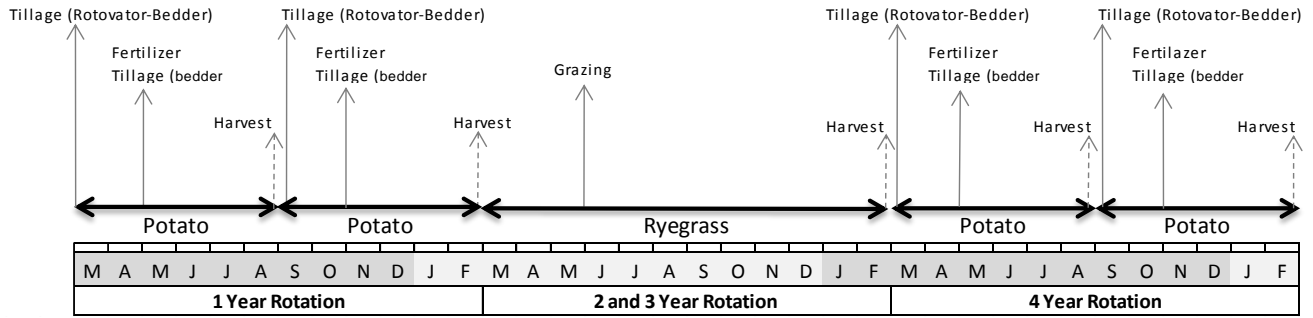
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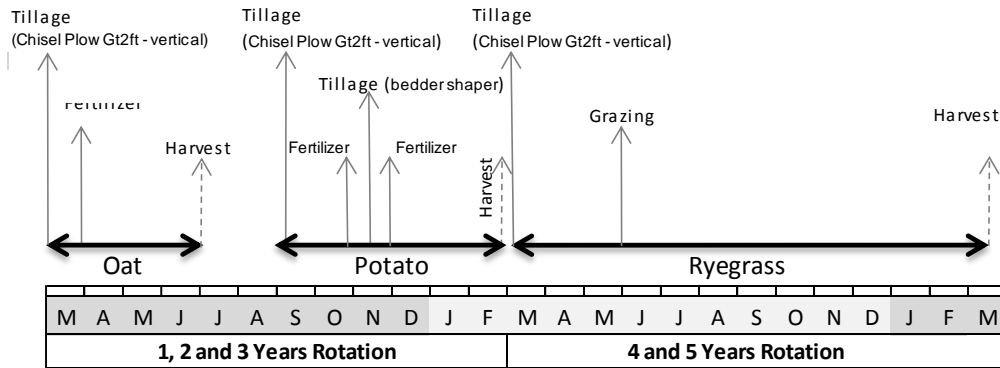
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Fig. 2. A conceptual outline of conventional (IT) potato crop management practices.

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Fig. 3. A conceptual outline of conservational (CT) potato crop management practices.

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Table 2
Parameter values defined related management practices per scenario.

Variable name	Definition	Value				
		IT		CT		
Planting		POTA	PASTURE	POTA	OAT	PASTURE
PLANT_ID	Plant/land cover code from crop.dat	POTA	RYEG	POTA	OATS	RYEG
HEAT_UNITS	PHU: Total heat units required for plant maturity	800	700	800	400	700
BIO_INIT	Initial dry weight biomass (kg/ha)	200		200	18	
HI_TARG	Target harvest index					
BIO_TARG	Biomass (dry weight) target (metric tons/ha)					
CN2	Initial SCS runoff curve number (min 35- max 98)	62	40	62	53	40
Grazing						
MANURE_ID	Manure code from fert.dat		Beef-Fresh			Urea
GRZ_DAYS	Number of days of grazing		200			200
BIO_EAT	Dry weight plant biomass consumed daily (kg/ha)		30			30
BIO_TRMP	Dry weight of biomass trampled daily ((kg/ha)/day)		14			14
MANURE_KG	Amount of manure applied -dry weight (kg/ha)		6			6
BIO_MIN	Minimum plant biomass for grazing to occur (kg/ha)		500			500
Tillage						
TILLAGE_ID	Tillage implementation	Bedder shaper	Rotovator-bedder	Chisel Plow Gt2ft -vertical		Bedder shaper
EFFMIX	Mixing efficiency of tillage operation (fraction)	0.55	0.8	0.3		0.55
DEPTIL	Depth of mixing by tillage operation (mm)	150	100	150		150
BIOMIX	Biological mixing efficiency (fraction)	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Fertilizer						
FERT_ID	Type of fertilizer/manure applied	13-26-06		13-26-06	Urea	
FRT_KG	Amount of fertilizer/manure applied (kg/ha)	1400 (2 times of 700 each one)		1000 (2 times of 500 each one)	300	
FRT_SURFACE	The fraction of fertilizer applied to top 10 mm	1		1	1	

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Table 3
Physico-chemical soil parameters measured in the field plots defined in the selected HRUs.

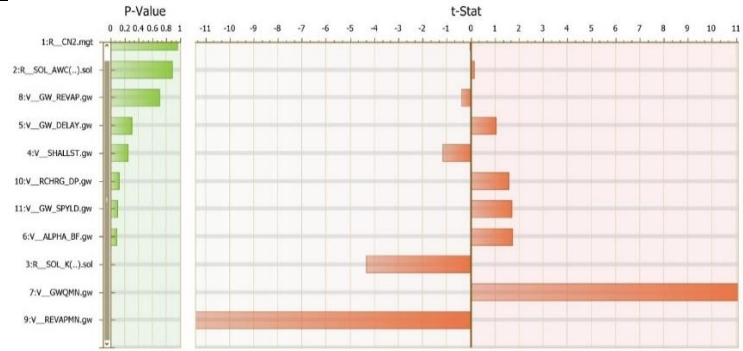
Treatment	Soil profile	Depth (cm)	Bulk density (g/cm ³)	Soil available water content (mm/mm)	Hydraulic conductivity (mm/h)	Sand (%)	Silt (%)	Clay (%)	Organic matter (%)	Carbon (%)
IT	A	0 - 40	1.39	0.140	109.16	32.32	51.84	15.84	3.02	3.05
	B	40 - 60	1.58	0.160	76.30	32.60	50.35	17.05	1.16	0.57
CT	A	0 - 20	1.29	0.270	203.14	6.45	66.13	27.42	8.50	3.74
	B	20 - 40	1.29	0.420	101.07	24.62	37.88	37.50	5.89	2.59

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Table 4
Sensitivity analysis rank results for streamflow model output.

Rank	Parameter ^a	t-value ^b	p-value ^c
1	r_Cn2.mgt	-0.014	0.989
2	r_Sol_awc().sol	0.040	0.968
3	v_Gw_revap.gw	-0.391	0.737
4	v_Gw_delay.gw	1.009	0.313
5	v_Shallst.gw	-1.134	0.210
6	v_Rchrg_dp.gw	1.617	0.183
7	v_Gw_spyld.gw	1.877	0.107
8	v_Alpha_bf.gw	-4.381	0.099
9	r_Sol_K().sol	-4.348	0.016
10	v_Gwqmn.gw	11.254	0.005
11	v_Revapmn.gw	-11.051	0.000



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^a v: parameter value is replaced by a value from the given range; r: parameter value is multiplied by (1 + a given value) (Abbaspour et al., 2007).

^b t-value shows a measure of sensitivity: the larger the t-value are more sensitive.

^c p-value shows the significance of the sensitivity: the smaller the p-value, the less chance of a parameter being by chance assigned as sensitive

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Table 5
Streamflow, sediment and nutrients parameters, allowable ranges, and final calibration values.

Parameter	Description in SWAT	Range	Model default value	Final value
Streamflow				
ALPHA_BF	Baseflow alpha factor [days].	0 – 1	0.048	0.02
GW_DELAY	Groundwater delay [days].	0 – 500	31	25
GW_REVAP	Groundwater revap coefficient.	0 – 1	0.02	0.02
RCHRG_DP	Deep aquifer percolation fraction.	0 – 1	0.05	0.1
REVAPMN	Threshold water depth in the shallow aquifer for revap [mm].	0 – 500	1	100
GWQMN	Threshold water depth in shallow aquifer for flow [mm].	0 - 5000	0	100
SHALLST	Initial depth of water in the shallow aquifer [mm].	0 - 1000	0.5	100
GW_SPYLD	Specific yield of the shallow aquifer [m ³ /m ³].	0 - 0.4	0.003	0.2
GWHT	Initial groundwater height [m].	0 – 40**	1	25
CN2	Initial SCS CN II value.	35 – 98		Specific to HRU
SOL_K	Saturated hydraulic conductivity [mm/h].	0 - 2000		Specific to soil survey unit
SOL_AWC	Available water capacity [mm H ₂ O/mm soil].	0 – 1		
Sediment				
BIOMIX	Biological mixing efficiency.	0 – 1	0.2	0.2
CN2	SCS runoff curve number for moisture condition II.	35 – 98	Specific to land use	0.1*CN _{2default}
USLE_P	USLE equation support practices.	0 – 1	1	0.5
SLSUBBSN	Average slope length.	10 - 150	Specific to HRU	0.1*SLSUBBSN _{default}
Crop growth				
T_OPT	Optimal temp for plant growth.	Nov-38	22	17
T_BASE	Min temp plant growth.	0 – 18	7	5
HEATUNITS	Total heat units for cover/plant to reach maturity.	0 - 3500	1800	800*
Nutrients				
PHOSKD	Phosphorus soil partitioning coefficient.	100 - 300**	175	200
NPERCO	Nitrogen percolation coefficient.	0 – 1	0.2	1
RSDCO	Residue decomposition coefficient.	0.02 - 0.1	0.05	0.1
SOL_LABP	Initial soluble P concentration in surface soil layer [mg/kg].	0 – 100	0	44
SOL_NO3	Initial NO ₃ concentration in soil layer [mg/kg].	0 – 100	0	12
SOL_ORGN	Initial organic N concentration in soil layer [mg/kg].	0 – 100	0	10
SOL_ORGP	Initial organic P concentration in surface soil layer [mg/kg].	0 – 100	0	10
PPERCO_SUB	Phosphorus percolation coefficient.	10 -17.5	10	17
BIO_TARG	Biomass (dry weight) target [metric ton/ha].	4 – 100	0	30
FRT_SURFACE	Fraction of fertilizer applied to top 10mm of soil.	0 – 1	0	1

* Value calculated with local weather using PHU_program available at SWAT webpage (<http://swat.tamu.edu/software/potential-heat-unit-program/>).

**The maximum was adjusted for the case study.

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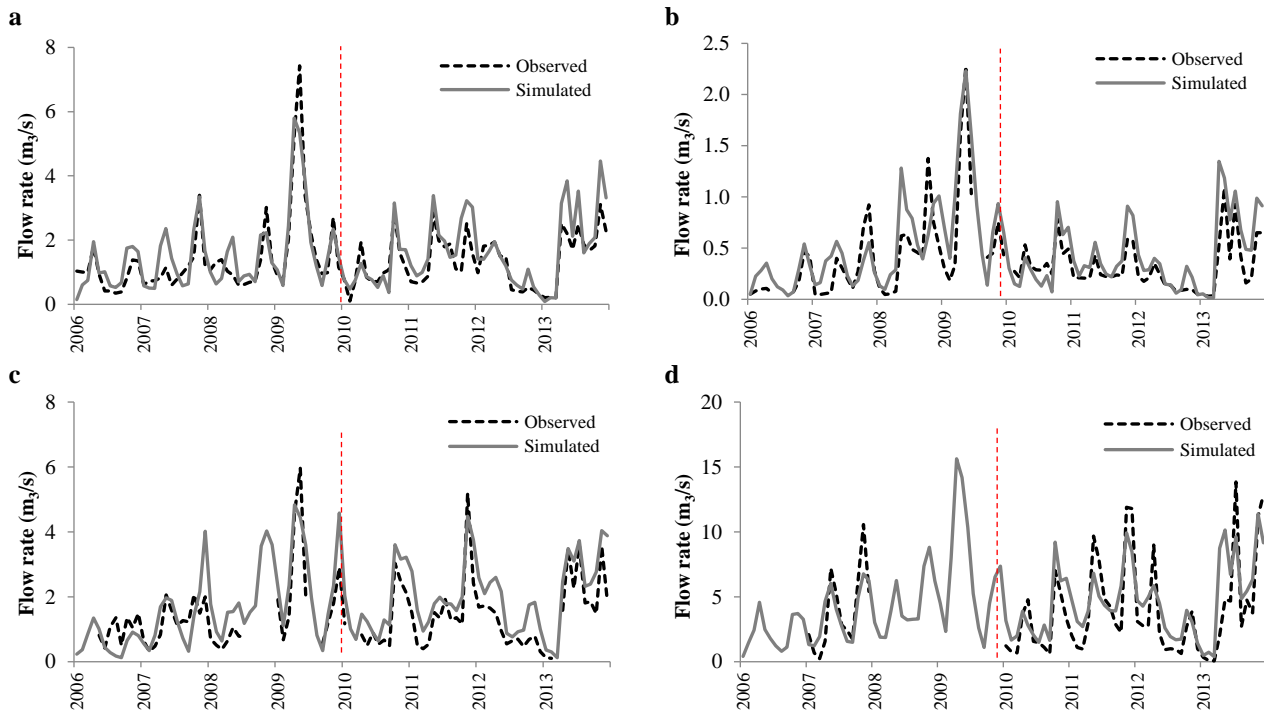
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Table 6
Calibration and validation flow performances at the watershed level.

Catchment station	CALIBRATION						VALIDATION					
	Flow rate (m ³ /s)		NSE	d	RMSE	MAE	Flow rate (m ³ /s)		NSE	d	RMSE	MAE
	Simulated	Observed					Simulated	Observed				
La Boyera	1.5	1.41	0.78	0.94	0.6	0.45	1.6	1.32	0.54	0.9	0.59	0.41
El Pino	0.52	0.43	0.61	0.9	0.28	0.21	0.42	0.32	0.32	0.87	0.2	0.15
Pte. La Balsa	1.58	1.38	0.50	0.88	0.79	0.62	2.03	1.45	0.58	0.87	0.78	0.66
Pte. Colorado	3.58	3.85	0.68	0.88	1.68	1.3	4.6	3.87	0.61	0.87	2.26	1.79

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Fig. 4. Monthly calibration and validation results for flow (a) La Boyera, (b) El Pino (c) Pte. Balsa, and (d) Pte. Colorado.

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719 **Table 7**
 720 Sediment and nutrient losses performance.
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Variable**	Measured		Simulated		ε*	
	IT	CT	IT	CT	IT	CT
Runoff water						
Surface runoff (l/m ²)	27.45	26.05	28.97	24.03	1.53	-2.01
NO ₃ ⁻ in surface runoff (kg N/ha)	0.68	0.72	0.39	0.47	-0.29	-0.25
Soluble P yield (kg P/ha)	0.18	0.20	0.21	0.29	0.03	0.08
Sediments						
Sediment yield (T/ha)	0.62	0.07	0.58	0.31	-0.04	0.25

* ε: Absolute error. ** Accumulated total values from September 2011 to March 2013.

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 727 **Table 8**
 728 The main effects of IT and CT on average monthly runoff, sediment, and nutrients in surface runoff.
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Variable	Field-level			Watershed-level		
	IT	CT	Difference (%)	IT	CT	Difference (%)
Surface runoff (l/m ²)	32.84	24.03	-26.83	15.91	14.13	-11.19
Sediment yield (ton/ha)	0.58	0.31	-46.55	1.89	1.4	-25.93
Nitrogen losses (kg/ha)						
Total N loss	221.15	258.05	16.69	21.33	21.71	1.78
Organic N	0.08	0.12	50.00	3.36	3.38	0.59
Nitrate surface runoff	0.39	0.47	20.51	0.53	0.62	16.98
Nitrate leached	166.65	191.16	14.71	9.22	9.43	2.28
Nitrate lateral flow	4	4.85	21.25	6.03	6.11	1.33
Nitrate groundwater yield	50.03	61.46	22.85	2.17	2.2	1.38
Phosphorus losses (kg/ha)						
Total P loss	0.24	0.31	29.17	0.77	0.63	-18.18
Organic P	0.03	0.02	-33.33	0.49	0.45	-8.16
Soluble P	0.21	0.29	38.10	0.29	0.18	-37.93

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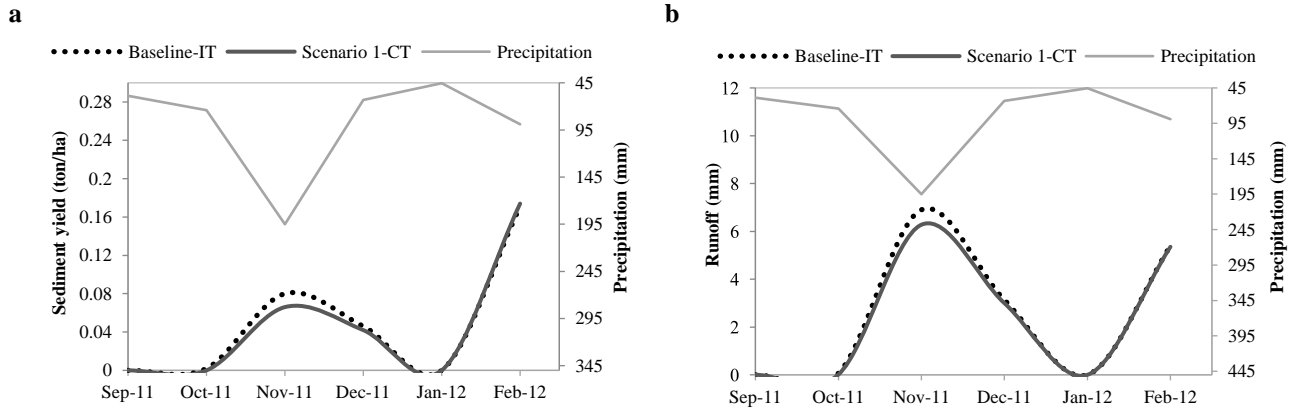


Fig. 5. Sediment losses (a) and runoff (b) at field level - right vertical axes.

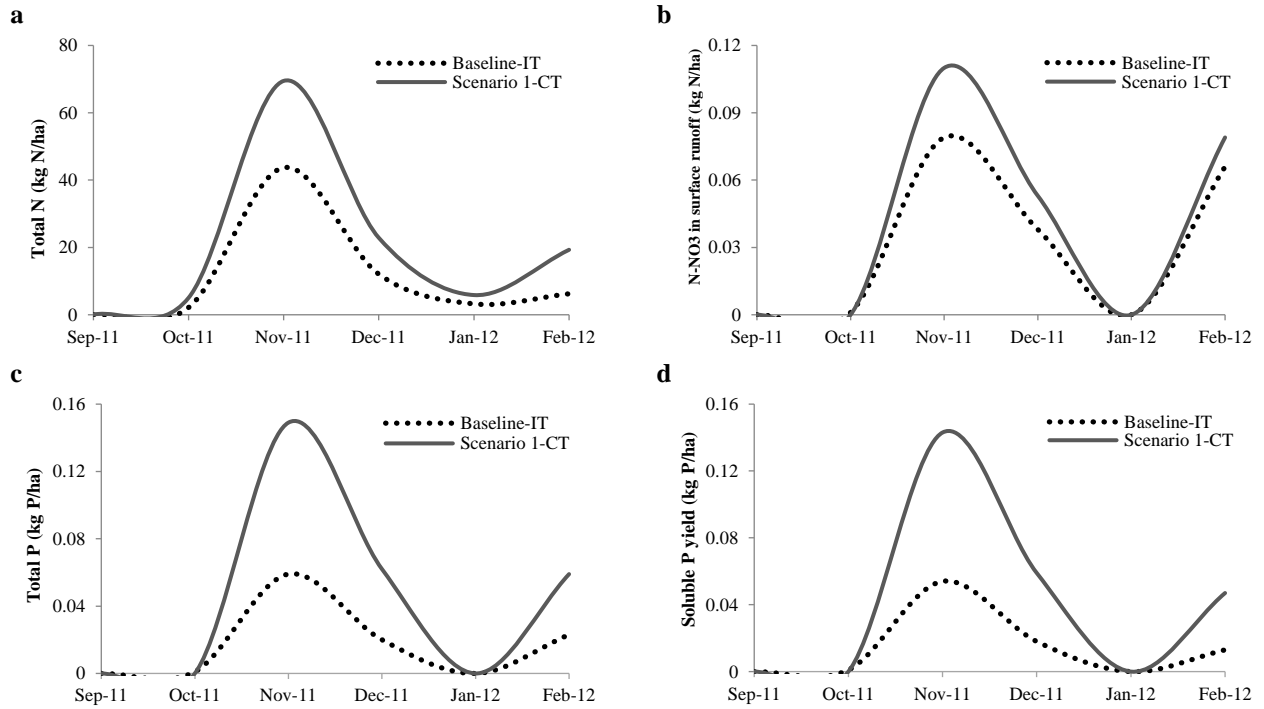


Fig. 6. Monthly total N (a), total P (b), N-NO3 (c), and soluble P (d) in surface runoff at field level.